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# Proceedings of the High School Principals' Conference

Held at Indiana University

November 16 and 17, 1928

Bureau of Coöperative Research, Indiana University
School of Education

HENRY LESTER SMITH, Director

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# Program of High School Principals' Conference

## NOVEMBER 16 AND 17, 1928

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### *Friday Morning, 8:30 to 11:30 a.m.*

Inspection of Student Teaching in Bloomington High School

Visiting principals are most cordially invited to visit the Bloomington High School between 8:30 and 11:30 o'clock to observe supervised teaching under the direction of the University School of Education. Call at the principal's office for a schedule of work in progress at this time.

### *Friday Afternoon, 2 p.m.*

Professor A. T. Stanforth, Indiana University, presiding.

Welcome. William Lowe Bryan, President of Indiana University.

Some Problems in Character Education. Professor Boyd H. Bode, Ohio State University.

Round Table Discussion, 3 p.m. Topic—Character Education in the High School.

Larger Schools. Commerce 23.

Mr. J. Warren Yount, Superintendent of Greencastle Public Schools, presiding.

Mr. Floyd McMurray, Superintendent of Thorntown Public Schools, leader in the discussion.

Smaller Schools. Commerce 25.

Mr. Earl L. Wood, Superintendent of Greenwood Public Schools, presiding.

Mr. E. N. Brindley, Superintendent of Schools, Sunman, Indiana, leader in the discussion.

### *Friday Evening, 6 p.m.*

Dinner in the Student Building Auditorium, Professor Carl G. F. Franzén, Indiana University, presiding.

This year there will be another dinner in the Auditorium of the Student Building for all those who attend the Principals' Conference. The price of the dinner will be one dollar. Tickets may be obtained from Mr. E. W. Arnett, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. The dinner will be served at 6 p.m. The evening program will follow immediately upon the conclusion of the dinner and will be held in the Auditorium of the Student Building. Any who do not care to attend the dinner are cordially invited to the evening lectures.

### *Friday Evening, 7:15 p.m.*

Student Building Auditorium

Professor Carl G. F. Franzén, Indiana University, presiding.

Topic: Character Education

Address. Professor Boyd H. Bode, Ohio State University.

Address. Professor W. W. Black, Indiana University.

### *Saturday Morning, 9 a.m.*

Professor W. W. Patty, Indiana University, presiding.

Revising a State Course of Study. Mr. Roy P. Wisehart, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Indiana.

Seminar Construction of a Course of Study. Professor Carl G. F. Franzén, Indiana University.

Round Table Discussions, 10:30 a.m. Topic: The New State Course of Study.

English. Commerce 23.
Mr. B. E. Myers, principal of Connersville High School, leader.

Foreign Languages. Commerce 25.
Mr. C. E. Beck, Superintendent of Schools, Columbia City, Indiana, leader.

Social Studies. Commerce 30.
Mr. DeWitt S. Morgan, Vice-Principal of Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, leader.

Mathematics. Commerce 31.
Mr. F. M. Klayer, Principal of Rockville High School, leader.

Commercial Studies. Commerce 32.
Mr. C. A. Murray, Head of Commercial Department, Bloomington High School, leader.

Physical Education. Commerce 40.
Mr. Charles B. McCullough, Principal of Union City High School, leader.

Science. Commerce 41.
Mr. E. J. Hemmer, Principal of Fort Branch High School, leader.

### *Saturday Afternoon, 2 p.m.*

#### INDIANA-NORTHWESTERN FOOTBALL GAME

On Saturday afternoon at 2 p.m. the Indiana University football team will play its annual game with the team from Northwestern University in Memorial Stadium. Tickets will cost $2.75. All seats are reserved. Order reserved seats thru Mr. L. L. Fisher, Ticket Manager, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

# The Place of Thinking in the Child's Schooling and Its Meaning for Education

W. W. BLACK, Professor Emeritus of Elementary and Rural Education, Indiana University

I SHALL discuss briefly a topic that affects fundamentally the whole of the child's schooling, with its application here and there to character education. Such discussion seems to me to be pertinent to the subject before us this evening, for I believe that the main line of procedure in educating for character cannot properly be separated from the other phases of the child's education. All education is character education.

In our consideration of the place of thinking in school education, let us start with a proposition which I think is basic to our discussion, and one which I think all of us are willing to accept as true. It is this: The differences which characterize man from the lower animals must define man's purpose or end *as* man, and must also indicate the means by which he is to accomplish this end, for a characteristic difference in end necessarily carries with it a difference in means to be employed.

In so far as the development of man is concerned, in distinction from that of the lower animals, these defining differences are two. First, man is a being of continuous progress. Progress or growth is his life-time business, and in his man-capacity it is his only business. The second difference is that man is capable of developing the ability to direct, hasten, and facilitate his progress by the conscious use of his past experience as a means in finding a way to meet the new situations that confront him in the path of his progress. That is, he is capable of developing the ability to direct his progress by *thinking*.

The child is placed in the school in order that his growth and the ability to direct his own growth may be brought about more assuredly, more economically, and more effectively.

This puts before us at once the twofold problem of the school. On the one hand, it is to direct the child's efforts to the end of growth. This is the one guiding purpose of the school. Education is thus one with growth, and since growth is its own end, so education is its own end. On the other hand, it is to direct the child's growth in such a way that he shall develop the ability to think as a means of directing his own growth.

I have called this a *twofold* problem advisedly, for the two are not separate problems. The child does not grow *and* learn to think; he learns to think in the process of growth. It is the thinking that the child himself does that promotes his growth, from the kindergarten up. His learning to think is a sort of by-product of his directed growth. If his growth is properly directed he *has* to learn to think. Let us now notice more specifically the value and wide use of thinking as a mode of directing one's progress.

The human individual (and all other living things as well) becomes what he becomes thru his reaction to the environment that stimulates his; that is, thru the way in which he meets the situations that confront him in life. His progress is determined, then, by two things: the nature of the environment, and the way in which he as an organism controls his reaction to the environment. It is the latter with which we are concerned here. We must note briefly man's different modes of control.

In adjusting himself to his environment, in converting his environment to his own needs, man employs six different types of reaction control. These are: reflex reaction, reaction from instinct, habit reaction, reaction by imitation, reaction by trial-and-error, and thinking, or the control of reaction by reflection. As we touch on these different types, let us observe especially the way in which man relates thinking to the other forms, with the result he produces thereby.

1. Reflex reaction is a native mode of adjustment. Its function is to preserve and regulate the physical organism for its work. It is not modifiable. And there is no necessity for modifying it, since the demand for it remains fixed.

2. Instinct is a native tendency to react along certain lines. Its outstanding function is the preservation of the individual and the race. In its primitive form it functions to preserve the physical life of the individual and its kind. In this form it is suited only to the most primitive needs.

As human life becomes complex and human progress is started, new needs for preservation arise which the instincts in their primitive form cannot meet. To adjust himself to this changed condition man modifies his primitive tendencies in such a way as to secure reaction suited to his new needs. Such modification he accomplishes by placing his primitive tendencies under control of the higher powers of his mind—the understanding and reason. In the language of our discussion, he modifies his primitive instincts by thinking. In this way, for example, man has refined the primitive sex instinct into love for the mate. In the same way the instinct to fight is rationalized, and even made to give way to peace as a better mode of self-preservation. So primitive selfishness is developed into altruism, which, fundamentally, is a high type of selfishness.

3. A habit reaction is an acquired and economic mode of using one's past experience in meeting a present situation. A mechanically-formed habit (one formed purely by drill) is developed by response to the stimulus *minus* its meaning. A habit of this type is inflexible in its nature, and is therefore suited only to meet an old situation in a definite and fixed way. It is the type used in the training of animals.

Another type of habit is formed by response, not merely to the thing, but to the *thing with its meaning*, which involves thinking. In such case the meaning becomes incorporated as a directive force in the act that is to become a habit. A habit that is thus intellectualized is flexible, and so is available for use in meeting varying situations. For since the outer situation varies in its meaning for one as it is presented

from time to time during the formation of the habit, the habit act in becoming established "gets used" to functioning under different, but related, conditions. It is natural, therefore, when a new situation arises, that the habit act should be dissociated from its former settings and made usable in meeting the new situation, if it is at all applicable.

4. An imitative act is a form of response in which the stimulus furnishes a model for the reaction. It is the simplest way of acquiring reactions. It is also an easy way to profit by the experience of others.

Imitation on the lowest level is an impulsive response with no purpose and no meaning to guide it, such as is exhibited in the child's shout of "honk! honk!" when he hears the horn of the passing automobile. It appears in a higher form in our more or less blind and unthinking imitations, such as are found in the formation of many of our social habits.

Imitation in its highest form becomes rational imitation. Here the application of meaning plays a prominent part, and the reaction becomes a means to accomplish a conscious end. There is now a weighing and choice of stimulus. There is the greatest of freedom in following the model. Sometimes it is followed in detail, sometimes with more or less variation, and again only the general plan is followed. The imitator then becomes self-assertive, and employs the imitative process only in so far as it seems to be the best available mode of realizing his purpose.

5. In pure trial-and-error there is no ready-made form of response, and no model reaction is followed. The reaction is not controlled by meaning, but is purely experimental. Something is tried. If it fails, something else is tried, and so on until the experimenter hits upon some reaction that meets the situation. The mode thus hit upon is then retained for future use, with the knowledge *that* it succeeds, but without knowing *how* or *why* it succeeds. Its function is to meet a situation in an original way. Its weakness is that it is slow, uncertain, and given to the acceptance of uneconomical modes and results that fall short of the most efficient.

But trial-and-error may be, and in adult life usually is, more or less rationalized by the application of meaning to the process. This means that the reaction is affected by thought. When thought takes a dominating control of the reaction, we cease to class the act as one of trial-and-error, and thinking becomes the mode of reaction control.

6. In thinking or reflection man reaches his highest form of reaction control. The other modes (leaving out the reflex) start either as primitive instincts or as reactions that are so easily acquired by experience as to lift them little, if any, above the instincts. With only these primitive forms of reaction, man could not have risen above the plane of animal life below man, where they are all found to function. But, as we have seen, by bringing his power to think to bear, he is able to raise these primitive forms to function on higher planes. From this point of view, the function of thinking is to rationalize these lower forms in order to make them available for use in meeting the acquired needs that are presented in the more complex conditions of life.

But this use of thinking does not exhaust the application of the process. The function of thinking is to direct the reaction that should be made in adjusting to any situation which presents a difficulty that is to be overcome, and for which one has no ready-formed, adequate mode of adjustment. Whenever one's progress is stayed there is occasion for thinking. Thinking, therefore, is in constant demand, for progress, man's leading purpose in life, consists in the successful meeting of new situations. We employ it also in meeting an old situation in a new way, but then the old situation becomes, psychologically, a new situation. Man's progress, then, in so far as method is concerned, depends upon his ability to think. So true is this that we may say, in summary, that man as man, man in his distinction from the lower animals, has just two things to do: to think, and to reproduce his thought in the things he says and does.

Thinking, like the other forms of reaction control, functions on different levels or planes. The recall of a name requires some thought. When a simple act of sense perception is analyzed it takes the form of thinking. Wherever meaning is grasped there is some degree of thought. From its simplest form, where the process is only implied, it shades upward until it reaches a highly complex and explicit form. This highest form is thinking in the narrower and more special sense—*reflective* thinking, we call it, altho all thinking is reflective in nature.

Now, in the case of the first five types of adjustment, and in thinking on the lower levels, little, if any, attention to the processes is required beyond what they must naturally receive in their connection with thinking in its higher form. But thinking in its highest form must be learned. And it is learned with great, persistent, and well-directed effort. Few persons, indeed, learn to think effectively wholly by self-directed effort.

Because of the place beyond compare which thinking holds as a tool for making progress, and because the process must be acquired by great and constant effort, the development of the child's ability to think should be made the center of the teacher's effort in so far as the development of the child's mind is concerned. As bearing on the importance of thinking and training to think, let me quote from two prominent educators.

President Eliot, in his address on "The Function of Education in a Democratic Society," says: "Democratic institutions will not be safe until a great majority of the population can be trusted not only to observe accurately and state precisely the results of observation, but also to draw just inferences from those results." A little more specifically on our point, Dewey says: "No one doubts, theoretically, the importance of fostering in the school good habits of thinking. But apart from the fact that the acknowledgment is not so great in practice as in theory, there is not adequate theoretical recognition that all which the school can or need do for pupils, so far as their *minds* are concerned (that is, leaving out certain specialized muscular abilities), is to develop their ability to think."

Now to consider briefly the nature of thinking.

Thinking is the mode of explaining things thru their relations. A thing exists by virtue of its relations, both the relations within it, and its relation to other things. It was the establishment of these relations that produced the thing in the first place. It is these relations, therefore, that give the thing its meaning. A watch as a merely-perceived thing has no meaning. Its meaning lies in its relation of use. Its spring, or any other part of it, has meaning because of its relation to the other parts in accomplishing the purpose of the watch. It is the function of thinking to explain things thru relations that already exist, and to bring about new relations in the production of new things. And this, in complex situations, we may add, is no easy matter, for relations are not presented to us directly. They must be inferred. We must dig for them.

Again, thinking is a rational mode of profiting by one's past experience. When a new problem arises that is to be solved by thinking, we must meet it by the use of meanings which we have experienced in the past. In applying his past experience to a new situation, one brings his old meanings into new relations, varies his past experience in an attempt to make it solve his new problem. Thinking, then, is personal. It is what *I* think that determines *my* progress, what *you* think that makes *yours*, what the pupil thinks that makes *his*. It is *my* resources of past experience that *I* draw upon, the *pupil's* that *he* draws upon. It is *my* reasoning, *my* inference, that counts for *me*, *yours* for *you*, the *pupil's* for *him*.

And again, thinking is a deliberate mode of reaction control. The act of outer adjustment is withheld until the thinker has gone over the situation and satisfied himself, at least in so far as circumstances permit, as to the best mode of handling it. The postponement may be for so short a time as to be practically negligible, or it may be extended indefinitely. Many of the problems that originate in the permanent interests of life—in science, industry, government, health, morals, religion, philosophy,—are passed on from generation to generation without final solution. For this postponement there are several causes, such as lack of insight into the problem, lack of sufficient data, changes in human purposes, ideals, and needs, and change in the environment to which we must adjust in converting it to our needs. Meanwhile we must act upon a tentative conclusion, holding it as a step in the forward movement of thought and accomplishment, however well suited it may seem to be to the time and conditions. It is a great weakness of the mass of mankind to violate this progressive use of thinking, and to accept what should be viewed as a present mode as final, and pass it over into a traditional mode. Thinking is continuous with progress.

Once more, while thinking is the highest mode of reaction control, it is not infallible. It is the trial-and-error mode lifted into the field of mental life. Its advantage over mere motor trial-and-error is that the experiment is controlled by reflection, is made and tested mentally before the motor reaction that gives outer adjustment is made. The act of thinking is started because there is uncertainty as to how the difficulty that is blocking one's onflow of life should be met. It is not

the nature of thinking to remove this uncertainty (even tho it practically does so at times), but to reduce it as much as possible. Thinking seeks a probable or possible solution of the matter in hand. The validity or falsity of the conclusion must be found, finally, in the actual result obtained when it is actually applied to the situation.

Next let us consider ever so briefly the nature of the process in thinking. First, there must be the locating of the real difficulty in the situation to be met. A situation that stays one's movement, if it is one with which he may cope successfully, is not all new; the new is always related in some way to situations with which he has dealt in the past. The old elements in the new situation serve to relate it to past experience; the new elements differentiate it from past experience, and thus furnish the origin of the difficulty. The first step in the process of thinking is to locate the point in the new situation that is the source of the difficulty and make it the center of attack.

The second step is that of bringing proper data to bear. In locating the difficulty in the new situation, and in observing it in the attempt to find a clue to its solution, the new situation, thru its relation to past situations that have been met, suggests some past fact, event, or meaning of some sort which is accepted as a possible means of explaining the new situation, and thereby removing the difficulty. This suggested resource material then becomes an active factor in the process by suggesting a possible solution of the difficulty. Moreover, the new situation may suggest not only one element of resource material, but a number. And again, when a given bit of resource material is suggested by the new situation, it, in turn, tends to suggest other resources to which it is related. In the two ways one is able to draw most fully upon his resources.

In the matter of drawing upon one's resources, it must be noted that one may possess data which he is unable to bring into use, data which are not suggested. In other words, he may possess the resource material without being resourceful. This condition is attributable to one or both of two causes: he may lack in openness to suggestion, or his past experience may not be held in usable form. The availability of knowledge or other resource material depends upon its organization and the conditions under which it was accumulated—two important factors which lack of time will not let us consider here.

The third step is that of inferring a solution of the difficulty. In using his resources the thinker attempts to extend his past experience to include, and thereby explain, the new situation. In this attempt his past experience suggests a tentative conclusion as a probable or possible solution of the difficulty to be met.

In an act of thinking where the situation is complex and difficult of solution the thinker plays back and forth between the new situation and his resources of past experience, trying and testing again and again. One attempt may suggest a change in the application of data, or it may suggest the use of other data, and so on until the inferred solution seems justified. This is the *reasoning* phase of the process. It throws the responsibility for the act and its outcome upon the individual who does the thinking.

The fourth step is that of testing the conclusion before it is actually applied. When a tentative conclusion is drawn it is tested mentally before it is accepted for practical application. The standard employed in making this test is harmony between the new situation, with its tentative explanation, and the past experience of the thinker. This standard is natural. The new experience must harmonize with previous experience, else there could be no assimilation of the new, the new could not be an extension of the past, there could not be continuity of experience, hence there could not be continuity of life. Failure of the conclusion to work in practical application, or to harmonize with past experience, may be due to error in the process. But it may be due also to faultiness in the past experience. In the latter case thinking should lead to the revision of one's resources.

I have taken time to touch upon the nature of thinking in order to give a background for presenting what I regard as the prerequisites to efficient thinking, which are the factors that give character to the individual. Let me list a dozen, some of which overlap.

1. Sincerity of purpose, the first qualification of the thinker, and the prime quality in character. No person's thinking is reliable unless he possesses this quality.

2. A genuine and active interest in the outcome of one's effort.

3. Initiative, or originality in conception and independence in action; a sort of rational audacity.

4. Open-mindedness; readiness to break with the past, that one may be free from habit and tradition.

5. Ability and disposition to gather and organize data.

6. Flexibility of resources, the quality that permits them to take on new relations.

7. Honesty in purpose and effort. Honesty with self, the basis of all honesty. Shakespeare puts it best when he has Polonius say to his son Laertes, "To thine own self be true; and it must follow, as the night the day, thou canst not then be false to any man."

8. Openness to suggestion.

9. Skillfulness in the selection and application of resources.

10. Ability to draw just inferences.

11. Willingness to test conclusions and to have others test them.

12. And, finally, willingness to accept full responsibility for the conclusion as a prerequisite to a forceful application of it in the affairs of life.

Every one of these qualities must be developed in the pupil in training him into an efficient thinker. What element in character education is not included in training the pupil to think?

From the beginning of his school life, the child should be trained in the things that make for efficient thinking. From the beginning he should be led to observe, to compare and contrast, to note likenesses and differences, and to draw just inferences; to put his knowledge in usable form; to apply his past experience in drawing conclusions, and to test

his conclusions both mentally and actually. There is no requirement in thinking that may be omitted from the child's training, even in the lowest grade. The one condition is that the training must be suited to the plane on which the child is moving at the time. If such training were begun in the first grade and carried consistently and progressively thru the elementary and the high school it would add immeasurably to the efficiency of our common schools. And, we may add, it would revolutionize the teaching in most of our schools.

It is a pity, to put it mildly, that we have been so completely imbued with the notion that the teacher's effort should be centered so almost completely on having the pupil accumulate knowledge for use later on. The school has not overemphasized the importance of knowledge. The error has been the neglect to give the child proper training in the art of gaining, organizing, and applying knowledge. It is neither necessary nor desirable that the child should accumulate in his school days all the knowledge he is to need in later life, nor the bulk of it. Most of the knowledge he is to use will be, and should be, gained, and better gained, after he leaves school. But it *is* necessary that in his school days he learn to think as his characteristic mode of work.

Now as to the conditions and changes necessary for giving the school child this training:

In the first place, whence come the problems on which the child is to use his effort while learning to think? If we were correct in the early part of this paper, they must originate in the difficulties that lie in the path of his progress in life at the present time, and from time to time. This, by the way, gives the basis for gradation in the school.

When the child enters school he has already made some progress in life. The work of the school is to direct his effort at further progress. He has started in all the great lines of activities and human interest he will ever have as an adult. These may be grouped, roughly, into four fields, at least for illustrative purposes: (1) the maintenance of life, health, and bodily comfort; (2) the field of production and distribution of the necessities and luxuries needed in life; (3) personal and coöperative activities that further the institutional interests of man—the home, government, etc.; (4) his recreative activities, and activities leading to the appreciation of art, and of the significance of ideas, and of the strivings and accomplishments of humanity. It is in these fields that the child's natural interests lie, and it is here that we must find the origin of his school problems. Any other problems he may encounter must grow out of these primary ones, not only for the teacher, but as necessarily for the child.

This means that the subject-matter should be selected and organized as means to be used by the child in his effort to direct his activities in these fields. Such use would give the truest meaning to the term subject-matter—matter to be subjected to the needs of the child. But it would play havoc with the present widespread conception that the mastery of the subject-matter is the end of instruction. This conception is not so widespread in theory, perhaps, but it is practice that tells in the life of the child. Let me illustrate what I mean by this case.

A professor of history in addressing a body of grade teachers urged them to "teach the American Revolution for its own sake." The whole tenor of his address pointed to knowledge as the end to be sought thru instruction. Now the fact is that the American Revolution has no "sake of its own." It once had, but has not now. Being now a thing of the past, we may study it only for *our* sake. And unless the American Revolution can in some good sense be made to arouse a "revolution" in the life of the pupil there is no valid reason for teaching it. The principle here involved is the only basis we have for placing a just estimate on any bit of information. Without it, for example, the War of the Roses would have as great appeal for us as Magna Charta or the teaching of Jesus.

This must not be taken to mean that every fact or event in history or otherwheres must be applied directly in the pupil's immediate affairs. It means this: Knowledge is to be considered a means, not an end. Knowledge in the educative sense has the use element in it. To study, say, the American Revolution as a thing apart, to study it for "its own sake," deals only with the relations within it, cuts it off from other things. This gives merely information, not knowledge. To gain a working knowledge of it, its wider relations must be understood, relations so wide as to relate it to the present and the future. It was in light of these wider relations that Emerson referred to the farmer at Concord Bridge as having "fired the shot heard round the world." It is information *plus the significance* given thru these wider relations that makes knowledge usable.

Lest I run the risk of being misunderstood, I must go a little further. One may take a recreative interest in gaining knowledge. There is a sense, in which, under certain circumstances, we may speak with some degree of propriety of seeking knowledge as its own end, as we speak of a piece of fine art as its own end. What we mean then is that we enjoy the systematized and meaningful activity represented by the knowledge as we enjoy the experience stimulated by the painting, the landscape, or the piece of music. We are satisfied immediately with the emotional effect produced in us. In a more fundamental sense, however, neither knowledge nor fine art is its own end. Both may end in the emotions in so far as present awareness gives evidence, but back of this there must be the faith and feeling that the experience is carrying us forward, and that it is referable to future needs. In illustration of this point, the student of history may, and usually does, search for historic knowledge without having in mind some present and specific need for it. But if the knowledge he gains in his study ends in the emotions, if it carries no value for use beyond the excitement of the emotions, the emotions are separated from the life process, and so lose their function, and the knowledge is run into a "blind alley" and becomes waste material.

The difference in the two theories to which I have referred is best seen in practice. In the lower grades the average teacher has devoted much, where not most, of her time to the mechanics of reading, to the great neglect of the fact that reading is thinking thru printed discourse. The result has been anything but satisfactory, and much time and

energy have been wasted, and worse. In geography the time has been devoted largely to the accumulation of facts, with all too little attention to their human significance. In nature study, where it has received any attention at all, the child has been required to observe and note the facts with but slight attention to their significance in nature, to say nothing of their relation to human life. The teaching of history has been a little better, but not much. Arithmetic and spelling have perhaps suffered most. And what has the child been doing meanwhile? In the main he has been "doing time." He has had little, very little, opportunity and encouragement to think, which is the most important thing he could have been doing. Let me give you a little parable.

An old woman had to churn twice a week. She had a large dog that liked milk. One day the old woman conceived the idea of doing her churning with a treadmill, and to have the dog do the tramping. She gave him milk in return for his labor. But the dog required milk between churnings. Fearing that he would refuse to tread the mill if she gave him milk without the work, she placed the mill beside the churn and had him tread it for each meal of milk. And so the dog tramped on, meal after meal. But most of the time he wasn't hitched on to anything. But *it was all the same to him.* He that hath ears to hear———. Is it to be wondered at that our schools have been estimated as only ten to twelve per cent efficient?

Now let us glance at the other side a moment. As a lad in school, I one day studied the law of action and reaction. The law was stated in the text, and the teacher explained its working in the physical world. There it stopped. But suppose he had shown me first its deeper significance in nature, and then that it is a fundamental law in spiritual life; that what I do makes me what I become; that as I think in my heart, so am I. Why, Jesus of Nazareth based all of his teaching on this law, every bit of it. Why didn't my teacher make me see all this? Because he made the subject-matter the end, isolated it out of its wider significance. He didn't understand that God's world is all of one piece, that it is one and indivisible, when viewed fundamentally. Why did not my teacher of botany make me feel my kinship with the plants? Why didn't he make the plant world exhibit me to myself thru its laws and modes of life and growth? Why didn't my teacher of geography use the subject-matter to lead me to discover the interdependence of men and the consequent necessity for coöperation in the affairs of men? He could have had no better opportunity to teach me the principle of democratic living. Does the teacher of history usually employ his subject-matter to stimulate in the pupil or student a serious study of the great moral struggles mankind has passed thru in order that the student himself may profit by the past experience of his kind? How much did you profit from your instruction in the use of English as a pupil in the common schools? As a student in college? Very little, I imagine. Why? Because writing is nine-tenths thinking; and so is most of the remaining tenth, for language is but a tool thru which to think. To train to write is to train to think thru language, and neither the common school nor the college is much given to such training. As a student I had one teacher, and only one, who used the great pieces of literary

discourse to make my life expand and my soul overflow with a view of life and human struggle in perfected forms. Does the average teacher, or even the one above him, use his subject-matter as a means of developing in his student the highest type of living?

I hope I do not seem to be overcritical of our schools. I believe the school is advancing in effectiveness as rapidly as any of the other institutions; certainly more rapidly, I think, than the modern home. Nevertheless we are as yet hardly quarterway down the alphabet of education. In contrasting the two conceptions, I have tried to clear the school atmosphere a little in order that we may be able to move more rapidly in what I think is to be the next great advance in education, an advance which has been looked forward to by leading educational leaders for a number of years, and a movement which, in fact, has already begun here and there. But before we can advance with due speed, a number of changes must be made in our conceptions, organization, and executive means. In conclusion, let me enumerate some of the more important of these changes.

1. We must conceive of the school, in practice as well as in theory, as an organized means for directing the growth of the child as an individual in the common struggle of humanity. This must be made the one aim of the school. In the accomplishment of this aim all the educational needs of the child will be best met. We shall then be troubled not at all with such specific objectives as the bread-and-butter aim, training for citizenship, formal discipline, character education, and the like.

2. Since it is the child's self-directed effort that is to count most in his progress thru life, and since thinking is his safest tool for directing himself, the school must from the beginning train him to think as his main mode of work.

3. The curriculum must be reorganized in light of both the purpose of the school and the child's mode of progress.

4. The plan of organization, administration, and supervision must be so changed as to meet the needs under the changed conception of the school.

5. Teachers must be selected for their native ability, general education, special preparation, and professional interest. They must be more mature when they enter the profession than they are at present. And they must have much more, and by far better, scholarship, and by far better special preparation, than they now get. We may add that this will require two, three, or more times the expenditure for instruction than is now paid. With proper preparation for the work, the teacher's compensation must be made comparable to that of other professions.

6. But where can the prospective teacher obtain the kind and quality of preparation demanded by the kind and quality of instruction which these changes contemplate? The answer must be, Nowhere, at the present time. Before these needs of the teacher can be met, our normal schools and colleges of education must be made over, with new objectives, new conceptions, new methods. And the college of liberal arts will have to about-face in its notion of college education, and look

upon the college course as a means of developing in the student the larger life-interests and a plan and mode of living. The whole system of educational means must advance for any part of it to make material progress.

To put the whole of what I have in mind in a single sentence: To meet the needs of the present day, educational institutions must direct themselves to the development of a new humanism.

# Education for Character

BOYD H. BODE, Professor of Principles and Practice of Education,
Ohio State University

MORAL education has always been an important subject and has taken on new importance at present owing to the spirit of independence among our young people. The authority of the family, the church, and the state seems to be less effective than in former days. The reasons for this change are to be found in the social, economic, and educational changes that have taken place. Those changes require a somewhat different approach to the problem of moral education. It is necessary to put less reliance on the attitude of unquestioning loyalty and obedience to moral standards and more dependence on a type of moral ideal that stimulates the use of intelligence and personal responsibility.

The development of character is bound up with the adjustment of interests to one another. The interests of life are constantly in conflict with one another, and moral conduct requires the adjustment of these interests with reference to a social ideal. The development of moral traits independently of one another is sure to defeat its own purpose.

If we view character formation as the adjustment of interests to one another, we make an appeal to the exercise of intelligence and we leave room for the development of new ideals. For this type of character development the indirect method is most effective. In order to make such training as effective as possible it is necessary to reorganize all our courses for the purpose of showing how man has progressively acquired faith in the use of intelligence and faith in his power to control his material and social environment. If we can present a picture of how man makes and remakes his institutions, his beliefs, and his ideals, we can provide direction to the idealism of youth so as to make it effective for the improvement of human life.

# Character Education

E. N. BRINDLEY, Superintendent of Schools, Sunman, Indiana

THE three fundamental institutions which aid in character building are the home, the school, and the church. The chief function of the home is to care for the child's health, while the central aim of the school is intellectual development, and the church is centering its efforts around moral integrity. An individual must possess these three essentials, namely, health, education, and moral integrity, if he is to render service to society. The lack of any one of them renders him dangerous to society, while the possession of them all is the greatest asset to the individual and to the nation.

Since the school is not the only institution which is building character, it should not assume all of the responsibility, but should coöperate with the home and the church. Its chief function is to care for the education of the child, and it should not assume the entire responsibility for health and religion. If it is to assume the responsibility of caring entirely for all three of these essentials and everything else that is good for the individual, it has covered the entire field and has left no burden upon the home, state, or church. If people are ignorant, and do not have character because of that ignorance, then the school is failing to do its duty. If, on the other hand, the people of our nation do not have health and moral integrity, we might find that the home and church have not done their duty. These three institutions should coöperate in order to secure those things necessary to the individual to make him an asset to the nation.

A popular indoor sport, in recent years, has been adverse criticism of the public schools. The fact of the matter is that the school has been and is doing its work so well that no one can say that the people are not being educated. What is wrong with the school? How often we have heard this question! What is right with the school? The public school is doing the thing for which it was established. It is building character thru education. Character education, then, from the viewpoint of the school, is mental development. "You shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free."

# The Problem of Liberal Education

BOYD H. BODE, Professor of Principles and Practice of Education,
Ohio State University

THE development of modern education has brought with it an unsettling of purposes. A few generations ago the nature of liberal education was fully determined. It consisted in being initiated in a fixed body of subject-matter. This initiation provided membership in the brotherhood of educated men and it provided standards for literature, art, manners, and conduct. Now, however, an enormous body of new knowledge has come in which has brought with it new standards of utility and scholarship and erudition. The result has been confusion and bewilderment. We are no longer sure what constitutes the good life or sound moral conduct. We are much more widely informed and much more worldly wise but we have lost the unity of outlook and the program of living which was provided by the classical tradition. Consequently the whole conception of liberal education is being challenged and the colleges of the country have become profoundly uneasy. It is necessary to provide a new justification for the idea of liberal education.

This justification is provided if liberal education will give us a philosophy of life or a program to live by. The old conception of liberal education has been discarded because it represented an ideal of withdrawal from the world and retreat to a world of art, of literature, and of philosophy created by the imagination. This attitude has become foreign to the modern temper of mind. Our present disposition is one of faith in the power of intelligence to reconstruct the world so as to make it more fit for human beings to live in.

If we follow out the implications of this faith we find that it implies the belief that all our institutions and practices and customs are simply instrumentalities for promoting a social ideal. Perhaps the chief obstacle to progress is our disposition to sanctify institutions which have been found useful and to protect them against any further change —the conception that institutions and beliefs are just instrumentalities furnishing a different philosophy of life or a way of living.

This point of view should not be presented in the spirit of propaganda but as a means for assisting the student to develop his own point of view. An approach to the educational problem from this angle requires an extensive reorganization of subject-matter and on the side of method places the emphasis on thinking, since thinking is but the process of reorganizing our former experience in the light of new knowledge. Some such reconstruction of the curriculum and of teaching method is necessary if we are to maintain the ideal of liberal education in the midst of the demands for technical proficiency and vocational utility.

# State Program for Curriculum Revision

ROY P. WISEHART, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Indiana

THE outstanding contributions to the study of curriculum revision in the past ten years point toward the coöperative plan. The departments of education of our leading educational institutions have had members of their professional staff devoting a large part of their study to work on the curriculum. The coöperative plan of curriculum revision was proposed at the Cincinnati meeting of the Department of Superintendence in 1925. The 1926, 1927, and 1928 *Yearbooks* of the Department of Superintendence have been devoted to some phase of that problem.

We have the results of various investigations and research studies relative to the problem of the content and material that should be offered in a modern school curriculum. The Classical Investigation of 1924, conducted by the Advisory Committee of the Classical League, was made possible by the generous support of the General Education Board. The purpose of that study was "to improve the teaching of classics." The title headings of three chapters in the report indicate the importance of the investigation: (1) "Aims or Objectives in the Teaching of Secondary Latin," (2) "The Content of the Course in Secondary Latin," and (3) "Methods of Teaching Secondary Latin." The mention of a few of the scholars interested in the investigation further emphasizes the importance of this study: Andrew F. West, Mason D. Gray, W. L. Carr, Frances E. Sabin, on the Advisory Committee of Fifteen; and S. Dwight Arms, Olive B. Catlin, Lillian Gay Berry, and B. L. Ullman, who were on some one of the eight regional committees.

Then we have the report of the national committee on mathematics requirements, 1923, under the auspices of the Mathematical Association of America. In the preface to its report, the national committee indicates that the purpose of the study was to "give national expression to the movement for reform in the teaching of mathematics." Three chapters in Part I on "General Principles and Recommendations" were devoted to (1) "Mathematics for Years 7-8-9," (2) "Mathematics for Years 10-11-12," (3) "List of Propositions in Plane and Solid Geometry," and in Part II, reports on investigations conducted for the committee were given by such individuals as Raleigh Schorling, C. B. Upton, Vevia Blair, D. E. Smith, and J. A. Foberg.

The social studies program is more difficult to study but is now receiving attention from many of our most gifted educational leaders. The teaching of English also is receiving special attention at the hands of departments of education, colleges, universities, and normal schools, and also from heads of departments of English in the high schools of the country.

A survey of the above-mentioned activities concerning curriculum construction would make anyone who is responsible for the publication of a series of courses of study decide that he should use the coöperative plan of curriculum revision in order that he might better serve the children under his administrative jurisdiction.

When it became necessary for Indiana to revise her high school courses of study, the influence of the above suggested research and coöperative studies caused us to plan some sort of coöperative method in the solution of our curriculum revision problem. Our course of study then in use was the best one we had ever had. A number of outstanding Indiana educators had helped build that course of study, but we wanted an expression from a larger number and from a more representative group as to the needs of the state. Accordingly, eleven conferences were held in different sections of the state to which county, city, and town superintendents were invited. They were asked to come and criticize our proposed method of building the course of study and to suggest teachers who would be called upon to do the work in seminars in some one of the four state schools. About 325 county, city, and town superintendents attended these eleven conferences. They criticized the proposed plan and suggested new ideas, some of which were incorporated in the plan, and within two weeks after the close of the last of these conferences, the names of about 350 outstanding high school teachers and principals were submitted by these administrative officers. Most of these teachers either had their masters' degrees in the field of work in which they were teaching or were definitely approaching that degree.

We selected eighty to be on our General Committee and called a two-day conference at Indianapolis for the purpose of acquainting that group with the details of our proposed plan. We hoped that most of the teachers could be retained on the committees so that the seminars would be headed by people who understood the details of the plans. If I could get before you a graph of our plan of organization and personnel of committees, it would consist of the following headings: The State Board of Education; The State Superintendent of Public Instruction; and under him, the items of Publicity, Clerical Help, Reference Material, and Curriculum Specialists. Next in line of duty was the Central Committee composed of county, city, and town superintendents, and members of the departments of education of the four state schools and one non-state school. Then we had our subject-matter committees in the fields of English, social studies, foreign language, mathematics, science, physical education, practical arts, and fine arts. Working in connection with the special subject-matter committees, but in a field more or less alone, was a group of four special committees—one on Extra-Curricular Activities, another on Character Education, the third on the Junior High School, and the fourth on the Six-Year High School. Where possible, there was a general committee heading the work in each of these fields, but in each of these fields there were seminar committees that assembled the material for the course of study.

The Central Committee worked out the general objectives of secondary education, the guiding principles of curriculum construction, the high school graduation requirements, the high school program of studies,

and the form of publication of the courses. The Committee reaffirmed the cardinal principles of secondary education as its base of departure for guiding the subject-matter committees in reorganizing the courses of study and in determining the curriculum reorganization. These are health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, civic education, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character. Health education was added to the requirements for graduation from a four-year high school course, making the total requirements nine units, with seven electives. Committees were assigned to develop the program of studies, which was approved by the Central Committee. In this, suggestions for English, social studies, foreign language, mathematics, science, health, practical arts, and fine arts were developed in such a way that any high school having proper facilities can offer such a curriculum as is needed in its particular community. The Central Committee decided that the publications should be in a four-columned arrangement in this order: (1) Specific Objectives; (2) Content of the Suggested Activities; (3) Methods of Procedure; and (4) Differentiation and Enrichment. The idea back of this was to have before the teacher the particular objective that was to be accomplished by the study of any particular unit of instruction mentioned in the content column, and to suggest ways or methods by which that particular content could be successfully presented to the class. Additional material was offered in the Differentiation and Enrichment column in order that those pupils who were able to do more than a minimum amount of work could be assigned plenty of related activities.

English, foreign language, and mathematics were assigned to Indiana University; social studies, health education, and physical geography were assigned to the Indiana State Teachers College; biology and commercial arts were assigned to Ball Teachers College; and agriculture was assigned to Purdue University. The remaining courses—physics, chemistry, botany, home economics, music, and art—were prepared by individual committees whose members individually prepared units of work in their respective subjects. The final committee reports in each case were submitted directly to the Central Committee for evaluation and acceptance. The preliminary reports of the committees were printed or mimeographed and will be used as the tentative courses of study for the school years 1928-29 and 1929-30, after which we expect to revise these courses, basing the revision on the recommendations of teachers who have been using them during these years.

The work of the special subject-matter committees was, first, to develop the general objectives for the subject in which they were working, and then to determine the units of instruction to be offered in the course. I happened into one committee meeting one morning during the first week. The twenty-six members of this committee had been divided into groups for the purpose of working out general objectives for that subject and were assembled for the purpose of criticizing the work that had been done. One teacher discussed rather freely her views in opposition to a certain objective being adopted as one of the general objectives for that branch of subject-matter and after she had completed her argument, another young lady developed her arguments in support of

the particular objective. These were high grade teachers and they were determined to secure the best possible statement of objectives for their subject. The result of their argument was an objective that embodied the better parts of the two arguments. One of these individuals came from a small school and one from a large school and each held a master's degree in the subject under discussion. It was "give and take" by the well trained teachers in this instance.

I entered into another meeting of this committee later on in an afternoon session. The members were working in groups developing certain units of instruction for each of the years of high school. The teachers in each group were discussing the respective units from the standpoint of the need of various communities. There happened to be representation of most of the groups from at least three different types of communities, so a wide variety of teacher experiences in community life was woven into the particular unit of instruction. Toward the close of the six-weeks period, in which this committee was working, I attended a night session when the committee as a whole was assembling its material for printing. The thing that impressed me with the work of this and similar committees was the fact that the teachers were willing to work early and late on the material they were preparing to present to the teachers of the state in their respective subjects.

This whole program of curriculum revision in Indiana could not have been carried thru to a successful conclusion if the people selected to do the work had not been willing to make a sacrifice of time and money in order to accomplish the desired end. The state could not pay these people for doing the work. However, we had arranged with the four state schools for the individuals who worked solid time for one or more weeks to receive one semester hour of graduate credit for each whole week spent in seminar, applicable on either a master's or doctor's degree, without the necessity of paying the customary college fees for this credit.

This arrangement seemed to furnish sufficient motivation for the production of a course of study, which we choose to style as a preliminary course of study. It is the hope of the individuals who worked so hard during the summer that this shall be the beginning of continuous work on curriculum revision in this state. We hope that the work of the various committees will receive sincere consideration by every teacher in the state and that when opportunity for revision comes, everyone will accept it so that we may have developed, eventually, courses of study that suit the schools of Indiana.

# A Seminar Construction of a Course of Study

CARL G. F. FRANZÉN, Professor of Secondary Education,
Indiana University

SINCE Superintendent Wisehart has outlined the method in which the work of organizing a state course of study was to be carried on in the summer of 1928, it will be my task to discuss the procedure at one of the four centers, namely, Indiana University. Dean Smith, as director of the Summer Session, relieved me of all of my teaching duties with the exception of a graduate class in High School Supervision so that I might devote my time from 9 o'clock every day to the seminars assigned to me in English, mathematics, and foreign languages.

The first step was to find out what available space there was in which each of the three groups might work uninterruptedly and in which they might leave their materials undisturbed from one day to the next. Thru the courtesy of Mr. W. A. Alexander, University Librarian, it was possible to obtain three such rooms for the exclusive use of the seminar groups. The next step was to collect material which might be of service to the committees in carrying on their work. We assembled all such state and city courses of study in our three fields as were on hand. Others were ordered immediately. All books dealing with special methods were collected and assembled for each group. Last of all, requests were sent to various textbook companies to furnish us with copies of their recent textbooks in these fields. The response to these requests was so good that we feel that we have now an excellent secondary school textbook library. Of course, these books kept coming in all during the period during which we were working, so that some were used much more than others.

The teachers who had decided to work at Indiana University assembled on the morning of June 4. A couple of meetings were held to explain the nature of the work as I was to conduct it and to make a preliminary organization. Material which had been collected was distributed to the various groups and then each one was assigned its own seminar room in which to work. It was my task to hold daily conferences as often as possible with each of the three groups. Sometimes I met each group as a whole; at other times I met with sub-committees of each group, and then there were occasions when sub-committees made reports to the whole group. The purpose of these conferences was to listen to the reports on the various projects that had been assigned and worked out. Every project had to be gone over word for word as to phrasing and diction, as to proper organization of material, and as to conformity to the major aims and objectives of secondary education and of the subject itself. My function was that of coördination and I had to see that the various committees followed similar procedures in all

respects, so that, when the final drafts had been accepted for publication, they would display the necessary uniformity in external organization and the necessary internal agreement in adhering to the proper objectives. The groups met regularly every day including Saturday. The expected hours of work were from 8 to 12 and from 1 to 5. Hardly an evening passed that some members were not putting in some extra touches.

So far as my meeting with the groups was concerned, I found that the plan with which I originally started, namely, that of spending a whole morning or afternoon session with each one, was not always necessary, since the important matter was to cover the report on the project assigned rather than the spending of a certain definite amount of time upon it. Consequently, I was able to see some members of every group every day.

I shall now try to describe the types of projects carried out by the three groups and their method of working out the course of study. The first week was spent by all in developing the major objectives for the teaching of each of the three fields of English, mathematics, and foreign languages in the high school. These objectives were to be developed in accordance with the list of guiding principles prepared by the Central Committee. It was necessary that these objectives be ready by the end of the week so that the chairman of the three groups might take them to Indianapolis on Saturday to present to the Central Committee for modification or acceptance. Stress was laid upon the listing of the objectives so as to be few in number and the wording of them to be such as to be fairly possible of attainment. My chief contention with each of the three groups was that ordinarily objectives are worded in such language as to be mere hopes and dreams rather than things that are possible of accomplishment. Consequently, the reports of the groups were done over several times before the committees could agree upon a satisfactory list of objectives.

The second week was spent in developing objectives for each phase or year of the subject in the high school. For example, English objectives were worked out for expression, written and oral, in each of the four years; in mathematics, special objectives for algebra, for geometry, for third-semester algebra, etc.; in Latin, for the various phases of first-year Latin, second-year Latin, etc. The same difficulty was encountered in working out these objectives as was met in the development of the so-called major objectives of the field as a whole. I insisted again that such objectives as were to be accepted must be few in number and within the possibility of transfer.

By this time each group was being broken up into sub-committees dealing with various phases peculiar to their own problems. Usually the sub-committee dealt with a special phase of the work or with one particular year.

After the sub-committees had worked out their objectives, their next task was to develop suitable units within each phase or year of work. The guiding principles underlying the selection of units were two: first, that the needs and interests of the boys and girls were to be of paramount consideration, and second, that the adopted text was

to be considered ancillary rather than all-controlling or determined as to the organization of units. Our idea was that when each course of study was finished, it would contain the type of material which we thought should be taught to high school pupils in accord with the guiding principles of the Central Committee, and that the adopted text should conform to our course of study rather than to have the course of study based entirely upon the adopted text.

After the units had been selected, it was necessary to develop specific objectives for each unit. Our aim in the wording of these objectives was to see to it that they were expressed from the pupil point of view rather than from that of the teacher. In other words, every time a specific objective was to be found in column 1, it was to be read and studied as being the goal which the pupil was to accomplish. This was one of the most difficult tasks in my rôle as a coördinator, in that unconsciously the teachers would backslide into a statement of the objective as being theirs rather than the pupils'.

When specific objectives for the various units had been selected, it was necessary to determine what should go into the other three columns, and I found another task on my hands, so far as the three groups were concerned, in seeing that they included what properly belonged to each one of these columns, for I found a tendency with all three groups not to distinguish clearly as to these three columns in the location of items.

Each group had, of course, its special problem and these had to be settled before much progress could be made in developing particular units of work. One thing especially to be considered is that, since only six weeks were allotted to this effort at developing courses of study, there were many things that had to be done within a short time. Consequently, it was to be expected that because of this haste certain errors remained in the manuscript and certain items were included in each of the four columns which would have been altered if time had permitted. That is the reason that the State Department is asking for the coöperation of the teachers thruout the state in the evaluating of the various courses of study that were prepared last summer. For it will be only thru the assistance of the teachers who are using these courses that we can hope for any worth-while improvements to be made. For that reason, I have, with the aid of a seminar group at Indiana University, been developing this past semester an evaluation report which is to be sent out to all high school teachers. If this report, which is to be made to the State Superintendent, is to be of any value, many teachers must coöperate in working upon it. I hope that you principals here today will go back to your schools and encourage your teachers to make our state courses of study even better than they are.

# Round Table Discussions Concerning the New State Course of Study

## *English*

B. E. MYERS, Principal of Connersville High School

To the Committees on Revision of the Course of Study:

TABLES OF CONTENTS should more fully analyze the books than they do at present. Perhaps the books should each be indexed.

There should be a heading at the top of every page to show what is being discussed there. The only way to find what you want now is to read the subject-matter on the page or to try to find the first page of the section for a heading.

Whenever a book is referred to, the reference should give the name of the author and publisher as well as the title. Or perhaps better yet, if the reference is often made, there should be an *alphabetical* bibliography in each volume listing fully every book referred to; then the frequent references within the course could be abbreviated.

When the columns contain an unequal amount of matter, as they usually do, the full columns should be wider than the thin ones. There is no use spreading the matter over so many pages.

Perhaps too many books are referred to in the Courses of Study, especially those meant for pupil reference.

All music limits should be set at one-half and one full unit each instead of four-tenths, eight-tenths, etc. Why not?

In English, the Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature should be followed and the report itself made a part of the Course of Study. *Our English* for ninth grade uses this terminology and it is time for everybody to fall in line. Authors and teachers have been negligent in this matter.

In English, all ninth grade subject-matter should be grouped together, including the foreword for that grade; and the foreword for Oral Composition should be a part of the Oral Composition matter. Each division should have its *own* foreword. There is enough difference in these courses to warrant different forewords.

There is still a difference of opinion as to the advisability of separating composition and literature into half-year courses, but personally I think it is the only reasonable thing to do. Even at that, there will be many teachers who will continue to dodge the responsibility of actual exercises in oral and written composition.

## *Foreign Language*

C. E. BECK, Superintendent of Schools, Columbia City, Indiana

*A.* Strong points of the course:

1. A logical arrangement of content, suggested methods, and references.
2. Definite statement of forms, syntax, vocabulary, and word study to be covered in a given semester.
3. Reading requirements varied to such an extent that each teacher has unlimited opportunities to vary her course as time allotment and pupil ability permits.
4. Word list and derivative list made and graded to meet the requirements of the adopted textbooks.
5. Many helpful suggestions, methods of presentation, and drills.
6. An appendix containing references for teachers' help on history, life, and mythology.

*B.* Weaknesses of the course:

1. The arrangement of the units is misleading unless a teacher thoroly understands the plan of procedure.
2. The amount of material will possibly overwhelm the average teacher.
3. The four-column arrangement has been criticized by a number of teachers who fail to understand what it is all about.
4. The large number of blank spaces in various columns have also been criticized.

*C.* Conclusions:

1. A tentative course only and teachers of Latin should realize that this course is a beginning and not a finished product.
2. The committee believes that, with the help of the foreign language teachers of Indiana, a worth-while contribution can be made to the field of education.

## *Social Studies*

DEWITT S. MORGAN, Vice-Principal of Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis

THE discussion in the sub-section of the Principals' Conference held at Bloomington, November 17, 1928, which was given over to the subject of History and the Social Studies centered itself in the following questions:

1. In what specific ways will the published course of study contribute to better history teaching in the state?
2. What method could be adopted to find out from history teachers of the state what features of the draft are actually helpful or in what ways the draft may fall short?

Because the conference was for the definite purpose of suggestions for revision of the tentative draft of the course of study, those attending the group conference were asked to be free to point out in what respect they felt improvement might be made. All agreed that the present draft is particularly strong with respect to the range of bibliography and materials which are suggested. Certain speakers commented upon the need for more adequate library facilities in the high schools of the state which would make possible the use of the materials suggested in the course of study. State Superintendent Wisehart spoke briefly upon the organized effort which the State Department of Public Instruction is now making to encourage better library and reference facilities within the high schools of the state. Much of the discussion hinged upon the problem which is presented in the course in American History in which the outlined course of study departs radically from the content and scope of the material of the adopted textbook. The method whereby the teachers of the state will be able to reconcile, in practice, the point of view as given by the course of study and the point of view given by the author of the adopted text was the subject of considerable discussion.

In discussing the second question, namely, that of how to find out from the history teachers what features of the draft are helpful, it was suggested that a group of perhaps two hundred history teachers be selected from various schools within the state who should be charged with the specific duty of formulating thruout the year a day-by-day or week-by-week report of the definite things they had found in the course of study which aided in their history teaching and likewise of pointing out those parts which are not workable. This question raised some discussion of the way whereby sufficient copies of the tentative drafts might be secured to make it possible for teachers to follow the course in their teaching and to make suggestions therefrom. It was generally agreed that the revision should be based upon the actual experience of the teachers in trying out the course of study thruout this current year in order that the excellent effort of the seminar held at Terre Haute during the past summer might result in the most effective service to the teachers of the state.

## *Mathematics*

F. M. KLAYER, Principal of Rockville High School

THE group was small at the beginning of the meeting but was most interesting before the close, as the discussion was free and the numbers increased as time went on, for some of the groups were dismissed and the members came to the mathematics section.

The plan of construction was discussed, and the general opinion was that the plan was ideal in that the committee attempted to care for the three groups of students as indicated in the course and at the same time observe the cardinal principles of education in the selection and arrangement of material.

The question, Will colleges accept the credit given for the general mathematics course as outlined for the ninth grade? was asked, and the result of the discussion was the general opinion that the student who was going to college where much mathematics was required would be strong enough to go into the algebra course without taking the general mathematics course or that it would be possible to rearrange the algebra course so that, after taking the general mathematics course, it could be covered in one year instead of one and one-half years as now taught. It was also suggested that the same could be done for geometry. This would then give three years for general mathematics, algebra, and geometry and still leave another year for advanced mathematics if any of the students cared for more than the three years.

Under the above plan the high school could count the general mathematics course for graduation in cases of students who did not like or did not have the ability to carry the other high school mathematics. Thus it appeared that the committee had gone far to care for all groups of students.

There was some criticism of the course in general mathematics in that it was too long or included too much material to be covered in one year. This, however, did not prove to be true after a discussion of the material. As there was no adopted text for such a course it was necessary to make it more in detail than the other courses. Second, as it was a general course it was necessary to put in many extra topics and then expect the teacher to select the topics that best served the community in which she was working.

There were some suggestions that many more devices might be placed in the third column of the outline as a help to the beginning teacher. There is also room for much more material in the fourth or last part of the course which is to be used for the very good students. But since there was only six weeks' time for making this course, it is suggested that teachers all over the state use the course as far as it goes and then add their experience to it and see that this added experience is sent to the people that will in the future revise the course. Thus it is a tentative course that will never be complete but will continually grow better.

It was the final opinion of this section that this can under the proper direction be made a very helpful instrument in the hands of a growing teacher.

## *Physical Education*

CHARLES B. MCCULLOUGH, Principal of Union City High School

WITHOUT a doubt all of us who are directly concerned with physical training and health education acknowledge and appreciate the work done by the course of study committee. This is the first time Indiana has had such an extensive course of study, and today our state has keener interest in the problems of physical development than ever before.

However, if this conference is to make any worth-while contribution, it seems better to search for parts which need correction and offer some

constructive criticism, thereby bringing the defects up to a standard equal to the better parts.

The three sources all give prominent recognition to seeing that the young boys and girls have sound bodies which will give the maximum proper functioning of all organs. This seems to me to be the big need for physical education.

We do not dispute the place of play, games, dances, etc., but our greatest task is to see that the cripple can walk, that the undernourished is made strong, that the crooked spine is made erect, reduced chest is made full or that the oral cavity is clean and sound, that adenoids and tonsils are not injuring the child's health, and that the feet are being shod in a way that will cause the youth the least amount of trouble in later years. That is our big task, and it is an enormous one. How we can accomplish this should be a prominent point of our discussion.

The classes must be arranged not so much according to the grade of the pupil in school, but more as to his needs for training—that is, to put pupils who require correction for flat feet in one group and pupils who have poor neuro-muscular coördination in another, and so on. These classifications should start early in the grades and be continued until such a time as the defects may be corrected or whatever the need for that particular individual might be.

The standard to determine how much physical education a child should receive ought not be based so much upon time spent as upon results met. If we prescribe one unit of work based upon time, what evidence do we have that any real results have been obtained?

But if the standard is weak arches made strong, narrow chests made full, and stooped posture made erect, then we have something visible to measure our efforts and we know that the pupil has actually been helped. So instead of basing the requirement for graduation upon time spent in classes, I would suggest basing it upon how closely the individual measures up to normal development and functioning of all organs.

To accomplish this means that a well trained physical director must be in each community. This person must be of a very high type and have the complete coöperation not only of the state department of public instruction, but also of the local physicians, dentists, etc. He must be given time in each school system, otherwise his efforts will avail too little. One of the underlying principles of health education, corrective gymnastics, etc., is habit formation, and that cannot be efficiently accomplished by working on a fourteen-year-old child twice a week. This type of work takes time and cannot be accomplished without repetition, often and numerous. The qualifications, preparation, and characteristics of the director are important. Surely the person in charge of developing the physical side of our youth should be as carefully selected and prepared as the person who teaches our young people foreign languages or solid geometry. He must know his work and objectives; otherwise, physical training in his school will be a farce. If he be the athletic coach he must be strong enough not to injure a boy's or girl's health by unwisely using that individual in a game to further his own reputation for victories or to satisfy the whim and false pride of the fans or student body.

Surely the question comes to you, How can we overcome the obstacles and provide for all this? That question is not so difficult to answer as it is to work out. There is the problem of finance, of schedule making, of providing room and equipment, etc. These can be worked out. The financing may require state legislation, the schedule feature may call for a longer school day, and room and equipment may require additional expense. However, bear in mind that it is not essential to have a seventy-thousand-dollar gymnasium to provide correct gymnastics. Too many teachers apparently believe the first essential for a gym class is a pair of basketball goals. But the undernourished child, the young victim of infantile paralysis, or in some remote cases the dwarf or cretin may be wonderfully helped in a vacant classroom. A burning desire on the part of those directing the course for results rather than for convenience in seeking these results will open the way and make available many places where the work can be carried on, even without ideal equipment. The big outdoors is begging many classes.

There is another question which confronts some of our schools. The standards of the North Central Association limit the number of students taking five solid subjects to a restricted group. The tentative course of study, on page 5, recommends that health education be given as a solid for one semester to everyone in that grade regardless of his I.Q. or ranking in the class. Are we to drop one of the studies we have been offering, or will the North Central sanction this as a fifth subject, or will it be better to give it two or three days a week for two semesters?

With all these difficulties confronting us, there is no need of giving up. If the major idea is right, we cannot drop it because of a few details. Work similar to what this state has planned has been and is being carried on in other states and can be here. It will take time and thought and we must be active in obtaining those things necessary for its operation. This round table discussion should produce some contribution which may aid the state department.

There is another feature which I want to mention for discussion. Do we have the proper conception of physical training and health education? Should it be placed as a division of general school work as are Latin, English, etc., or should not physical or health education be put on an equal basis with intellectual or moral training? We speak of the spiritual, mental, and physical man with definite organizations for aiding in the development of the first two, but not any such organization for seeing that our people grow up to their maximum physical development.

The question I raise is this: Isn't it essential that the state assume some responsibility and see that a child's curable physical defects are corrected as well as his intellectual shortcomings?

As I intimated earlier in this paper, I think that our state might consider it a responsibility even to compel all citizens to develop their physical being for physical competency. We may never reach one hundred per cent in either, but it is as great a crime to let an individual fall the victim of short-sighted or indigent parents and become physically useless as it is to be mentally illiterate. From the human interest side it may be even greater.

A very large part of corrective work is a matter of habit formation and therefore should be started as early in a child's life as possible. It seems to be poor pedagogy to let a child form a bad habit in posture, in toeing out in walking, in reduced chest capacity, etc., in the first fourteen years of his life and then expect a teacher in high school to break these bad habits in about eighty to one hundred minutes a week while the pupil is in the secondary school. We all know how much easier it is to teach such facts to grade children than to older boys and girls.

Pronated feet, weak arches, stooped shoulders, undernourishment, improper elimination caused from lack of exercise, etc., are bad enough to warrant our attention. But persons with these abnormalities may become self-supporting. The really serious cases do not often reach the high school and are thrown upon society physically unable to do their part.

On these premises it seems to me that any course of study for physical training and health education as adopted in the high school should be of such a type that it would follow about eight years of work in the grades, just as we have advanced arithmetic, composition, and history. We must not forget that about sixty per cent of the boys and girls of the grades never enter secondary schools, and it is this group, which will depend very largely upon their physical strength to earn their daily bread, which also needs our aid.